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THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

The Teacher in the Community

Howard A. Lane, *Issue Editor*

Community Neglect of Children	Alice V. Kelher	259
The Community and Child Development	Dan W. Dodson	264
An Education-Centered Community Can Care for Children	Howard A. Lane	272
The Neighborhood Is Our Classroom	Letty Telford and Jane Stewart	281
Training Teachers for Modern Education: The Pre-Service Program of New York University	Clara Skiles Platt	287
St. Louis and Its Educational Leadership	E. George Payne	311
Editorial, 257	Book Reviews, 314	

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THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

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EDITORIAL

The expanding knowledge of how learning takes place has shed increasing light on the weaknesses of our present educational structure, particularly in the field of early childhood education.

Under the impact of Professor William H. Kilpatrick there has been increasing realization that learning involves much more than book knowledge, and implies that things are not learned until personality has, in effect, been changed. This means that increasingly the total social milieu is taken into account in the educational process.

When it was found that it would be impossible for Professor Zorbaugh to collect the materials necessary for a number devoted to war and its moral equivalent, it seemed that one of the best substitutes would be a presentation by the Department of Early Childhood and Elementary Education of what their goals and objectives were.

Professor Lane seemed a "natural" to serve as issue editor. It is interesting to note that in all five of the articles setting forth the broad philosophies, emphasis has been given as much to the community and other phases of social milieu as has been given to what happens in classrooms and formal education processes. This is altogether wholesome and means that we are at last developing an

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educational leadership imbued with a capacity to see the whole child.

The next important problem is: How do you train such leadership? Mrs. Clara Skiles Platt has set this forth in the concluding article. It has been my good fortune in the past years to work with this group of teachers-in-the-making as they have taken their training. I took them during the time they were doing their observations in the schools in their junior year, and we studied the communities out of which the children came at the same time that the students were observing what was happening to them in the classrooms. Thus we had an excellent opportunity to compare personality needs, as reflected by community problems, with school offering.

These teachers in preparation then were not confronted with mere theories to learn from a book, but were thrown into situations in which they had to come back to their professional leadership at the college to seek guidance.

More and more this social manipulation of school groups, so that they are maneuvered into learning for purposes which grow out of their needs, will inevitably be a part of the educational process, and will be a fundamental part of the curriculum.

It is hoped by the editor that this statement of objectives and the delineation of program of this department will provide a blueprint against which its future growth and development can be checked to determine what progress is being made.

DAN W. DODSON

COMMUNITY NEGLECT OF CHILDREN

Alice V. Keliher

"Everyone loves a child," we say. How do we put that love to work? Good homes, good schools, well-designed communities with safe highways and adequate play spaces—these are some of the evidences that we love our children. But how many do we love? All of them? Look, for example, at these facts about the two million boys and girls of New York City:

Ten thousand find their way to court each year as youthful offenders or in need of the protection of the court from families broken by death, desertion, or cruelty.

Forty-five hundred are injured in the streets each year in accidents that need not happen if children had places to play other than narrow, dirty pavements in their block.

One hundred and fifty or more well babies, on any day, are in hospitals, having no other place to go when mothers die, are institutionalized for illness, or other emergencies occur. For lack of nursing staff these babies are often tied to beds, and then live their lives deprived of human attention sometimes for six months to a year.

Eighty thousand school children (a conservative estimate of one in twenty) need help with mental and emotional ills. Twelve thousand a year are *diagnosed* by the Child Guidance Bureau of the school system, but even the most acutely psychotic have little or no chance for treatment.

Sixty thousand children are "on relief," living on budgets that have never been adequate to serve the range of family needs; but now the cost of living is out of sight.

Two million receive eight cents a month in public health care, to cover immunization, parental guidance in health and nutritional care, tuberculosis prevention, school-age examinations (one in eight years), school nursing service (one for three thousand children),

venereal-disease control and cure among adolescents (up alarmingly during the war for 12- to 15-year-old girls particularly). Half the price of a package of cigarettes is devoted to keeping a child well for a month.

Three thousand eight hundred and seventy-one human beings, half of them children, living in one block of tenements in Harlem. Surrounding this block are eight others, each with more than 3,000 human beings. In nine congested, adjacent blocks, without a single play space, live 28,000 or more human beings. Imagine the crowding up of families, more than one to a room, with the consequent influences of overcrowding; namely, sex exploitation of children, complete lack of privacy, lack of standards of wholesome living. (Compared to the population of 28,000 human beings in nine blocks, consider that the population of the city of Tuscaloosa, Alabama, has 27,493; Danbury, Connecticut, 23,339; Frankfort, Kentucky, 11,492; Olympia, Washington, 13,254.)

These are the danger flags flying in one city, New York. How does an inventory of your city or your county come out? How much do *you* love children? Are you a part of a community organized to meet the needs of children? Are you set up for the immediate care of:

1. Children of homes broken by illness or emergency who need temporary care 24 hours a day, and often need it without warning
2. Children deserted by parents, abused or mistreated by them, not supported by them, who need foster homes or the kind of place to live where their troubled and shocked feelings can be dealt with as well as their physical needs
3. Children who need permanent homes, who need to be legally adopted into homes of people who can give wholesome love and appreciation to the child as a person
4. Children who are showing symptoms of emotional disturbance who could in a majority of cases be spared serious later breakdowns by prompt diagnosis and treatment; do you have child guidance clinics with adequate psychological and psychiatric service

5. Children who are not dramatically neglected nor seriously disturbed, but bitterly lonely; children, perhaps, of the 31 in 100 marriages now ending in divorce; children who need extra understanding and care to carry them over the voluntary breakup of their parents' marriage

We have cited above the more dramatic ways in which children are hurt and neglected by their communities and their families. There are the "vulnerable" children, those who need extra care, extra protection, and a background of careful planning for them, if they are not to add to an already overbalanced ratio of ill and disturbed personalities. Dr. Edward Strecker points out that 1,825,000 men were rejected for military service for psychiatric reasons and that 600,000 were dropped from the Army alone for the same reasons. Remembering that these were the men only, and from only the age brackets called in the draft, it is easy to see that the over-all toll of neuroses and psychoses is tremendous. From this appallingly large group of disturbed adults come many of the 31 in 100 divorces, the cruelties to children, the harshness and abuse of their fellow men.

Housing shortages, steeply ascending costs of living, layoffs, add their economic burdens to families ill-prepared to absorb further strain. These, too, contribute to the over-all picture of the neglect of children.

Make a check list of your own home area. What about *your* children in *your* community? How do you score in meeting their needs?

A child's needs are met:¹

By his family if:

1. He is loved and wanted—and knows it

By his community if:

1. He is accepted and belongs regardless of color, creed, or economic group

¹ Based on a Report on Home Responsibility, National Conference on Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency, December 1946. (To be published by the Government Printing Office, 1947.)

2. He is helped to grow up by not having *too much* or *too little* done for him
3. He has some time and some space of his own
4. He is a part of the family, has fun with the family, and belongs
5. His early mistakes and "badness" are understood as a normal part of growing up; he is corrected without being hurt, shamed, or confused
6. His growing skills, namely, walking, talking, reading, making things, are enjoyed and respected
7. He knows his parents are doing the best they can; they know the same about him
2. He joins with others to give community services as a child or adolescent; the community provides the services he needs
3. The community organizes nurseries, play groups, play spaces for children; it helps youth organize space and activities of its own
4. The community provides for family recreation, family sports, family music and play production, folk dancing, and other activities designed to build family unity
5. The courts, police, social workers, attendance officers, probation officers, teachers, clergy, all accept children as children and have a common belief in their capacity to grow under positive guidance
6. Young people are encouraged to form youth councils, to organize their own programs, join with their elders in churches, service clubs, and the like, and do their share in community improvements
7. Neighbors help each other out, understand the stresses and strains of others in the community, and work to organize the most effective ways to help each other with trust and mutual concern as the basis for action

8. He has something to believe in and work for because his parents have *lived* their ideals and religious faith

8. The community believes in peace, order, and mutual trust for itself, the nation, and the world. It *lives* its religious faith by doing good works and by seeing that *no child is neglected* because the community has failed to do what it knew was right

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THE COMMUNITY AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT

Dan W. Dodson

As emphasis in education changes from subject-matter content to the development of the whole child, it is apparent that the community plays an increasingly greater role in education. The reason for this is obvious. The community is the local social world of the child, and it is the smallest unit of society that presents an integrated pattern of reality to which he must become adjusted. In other words, it is society in microcosm.

If we are to achieve the goal of democracy, namely, that every child be given the fullest opportunity possible for the development of whatever aptitudes or abilities he possesses, we must look to the community to find the forces that thwart personality development and keep it from achieving its maximum development.

Programs of education then must be built on these community needs, else we become guilty of what education has done in the past, namely, emphasizing subject matter exclusively. Furthermore, it has become apparent that a program of education that does not, in some measure, move the *community* along toward desired goals is failing in its purposes, however fine the program may be.

The development of technology has reached the place at which its development and the attendant techniques of manipulating it can be written off as an educational problem. The ability of the Army to train completely inexperienced young men to handle radar, flying fortresses, and other such intricate technological equipment demonstrates this clearly.

The problem has become that of developing the comparable capacity in social relationships that will bring our behavior practices in line with the demands created by an atomic age, without the vast destruction of human resources, the pattern of which has been so well spelled out in the past.

Reliance solely upon the training of youth therefore is too slow.

It takes too long for the maturation process to bring youths to the places where their voices can be heard. Whatever is done in the schools is largely neutralized because youths are graduated back into a milieu of community life where attitudes are different from those taught in schools. Education in schools in most communities cannot go far beyond the attitudes held by the community because of fear of repercussions. Consequently, the "attitudinal mass" of the community must be moved in order to teach even in the schools the materials that are necessary to adequate social adjustment in today's world.

It seems to me, therefore, that there are two major problems concerning teacher training in America. The first is how to remove those obstacles that block adequate personality development in the average community, and keep youth from achieving what they are capable of achieving, and, second, how to spell out to the youth challenges and goals that will cause him to redefine his personality so that he aspires for roles that are commensurate with his abilities. Perhaps this latter should be discussed first.

Dr. Lloyd Allen Cook, in his book on community backgrounds in education, points out that if the mountaineer's child is asked what he wishes to become when he grows up, the answer is: "Why, a man of course," because the physical status is the highest selfhood which can be conceived in such an impoverished culture.

Alinsky, in his book, *Reveille for Radicals*¹, makes a running description of who the young people idolize in the back-of-the-yards area of Chicago. The newsboy and sociologist are in conversation. The sociologist is quizzing the boy on what he wants to be: a businessman, a banker, a college professor. The boy says, ". . . What do you take me for?" The sociologist explains that he is only trying to get an idea of what he wants to be, and concludes by asking if he wants to be the President of the United States. Says the newsboy,

¹ Saul D. Alinsky, *Reveille for Radicals* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1946), p. 92.

"Naw, I want to be a big shot like Big Butch [notorious leader of a large gang in the community], and have people look up to me and really be a number one guy."

These illustrations give some idea of the kind of problem the educator has in helping the youth to aspire toward those roles in society that will transcend local environment, and involve conceptions of self that are significant enough to require the development to the fullest of the aptitudes and capacities the youngster possesses.

The second problem is that of removing those blockings which frustrate young people and keep them from achieving the roles to which they aspire. Professor Sutherland in his concluding volume on the personality development of Negro youth in America, entitled *Color, Class and Personality*, makes much of the concept of the American dream, in which he discusses the dream of American youth that capacities, abilities, and energies will be rewarded in proportion to their merits, and that every young person is entitled to a consideration on the basis of his merits.

Some of these thwartings transcend the local community as such, and are sins to be laid at the door of a larger society. Thomas Minnehan in his *Boy and Girl Tramps of America* portrayed dramatically, although scientifically, the plight of American youth in the early thirties. He estimated that there were one million and a half youths between the ages of 16 and 24 who were unemployed, transient, riding the rods, living in jungle camps, and undergoing the disorganization of personality attendant upon such conditions; they were unwanted at home because there was no bread to feed them, feeling that they are a load on society, and particularly their families. They sought escape in transiency.

Many of the other problems are indigenous to local communities, and have to be understood in the framework of those communities. The Mayor's Committee on Unity has undertaken several small studies of neighborhoods of New York City to determine primarily the problems of intergroup relations in those communities, but

much significant light is shed on the problems of child development through them. For instance, Harlem as a community indicates some of the patterns involved. Here, a large portion of the population are peoples of recent Southern rural backgrounds who are tossed bodily into the greatest urban metropolis of the world. The conflicts in cultural patterns are at once apparent. Peoples who lived by an agrarian folk culture, where the relationships were intimate, sympathetic, and warm and where life is slow, find themselves caught in the toils of an urban industrialized time-clock economy where contacts are impersonal, unsympathetic, and casual.

A large portion of the tension and personality frustration in the community comes, no doubt, from inability to handle oneself intelligently with relation to these problems. The feeling of social isolation becomes next to unbearable. What is perhaps more significant, however, is the kinds of social living involved. For instance:

Housing. A large portion of the housing consists of old-law tenements built before 1900, completely substandard in accommodations and design. Frozen in the ghetto, these people are exploited in rents far beyond what could be charged for housing were they in other sections of the city. The average apartment is supposed to bring in sixteen and two thirds per cent gross return on its value annually in order to make a profit for the owner. Some of these old-law tenements, with service standards far below those of the average apartment, earned as much every three years as the property was worth. The overcrowding is tremendous. In eight blocks of buildings, none of which were over four to six stories in height, sixteen thousand people live in what is one of the better sections of the community.

Health. Health presents a comparable picture. The infant mortality rate amounts roughly to twenty more deaths per thousand before the first birthday in the Harlem neighborhood than in the white neighborhood. Out of each thousand born then, a good classroom of children is lost through death just in the first year. The rate

of tuberculosis is approximately 181 deaths per 100,000 population in the Harlem neighborhood as contrasted to 50 for the city as a whole, and the venereal disease rate is also higher.

Delinquency. Delinquency is of such proportions that the Negro population contributes, many times over, more delinquents per year in proportion to its population than does the white community. This is not surprising in the light of the kinds of problems with which the Negro community must deal: higher rents, discrimination in employment, etc.; there have to be more breadwinners per family. In 1940, only twenty-five per cent of the Negro women over fifteen years of age stayed home to keep house, as contrasted to over fifty per cent for the city as a whole. This means children are left unsupervised in crowded areas. It means that frustrations that arise in other areas of life find their expression in aggressiveness, in the crowded community, toward others in that community.

Education. The problem of sheer adequacy of educational opportunity is at once apparent. Higher rents and discrimination in employment mean overcrowding of population, which in turn means a greater strain upon the facilities that, when established, met the requirements of the time, but are now inadequate. Consequently at the point at which education needs to make its best contribution, it finds itself most severely handicapped. This is to say nothing of those who teach in those schools, who receive their training and have had most of their experience in white communities, but find themselves today dealing with peoples of cultural backgrounds which are, in too many instances, unfamiliar to them.

So the story goes. Harlem is not the only problem by any means. In Coney Island, for instance, the bad housing, the long hours of travel by subway from places of work to places of residences, the low economic level of employment of many people in the community, and the lack of recreational facilities indicate again the kind of problems which make of this neighborhood an area of tension. The survey there revealed the fact that those who had the most

"gripes" about the community in which they lived were also the most prejudiced against the other ethnic groups of the community.

In the East Bronx, the studies revealed that the prejudices shown by one group toward the other were not so great as were the resentments because the arms of the city government itself had deteriorated so signally as the neighborhood had changed. As a consequence of the change, the community found itself without adequate garbage collection, without adequate recreational facilities, without adequate educational opportunities, and with an over-crowding of many of the other services to which they had been accustomed. The result was that, of necessity, at the point at which integration was in process in the local neighborhood, the services were poorest.

In northern Bronx, the story is completely different. If the problem of attitudes alone may be used to illustrate here, it was shown that the social distance between the various ethnic groups was so great in this area of high socioeconomic status, and of high educational status, that serious doubt is raised in regard to whether or not any program of intercultural education would have significance as long as young people would be graduated back into the community without, at the same time, moving the adult population of the community along in the program.

Approximately one out of every five persons of the non-Jewish population interviewed identified the Jews of the neighborhood as being either liberals or communists. Approximately the same percentage of non-Catholics identified the Catholics as being conservatives, reactionaries, or fascists. Less than 10 per cent said of the others that they were of all kinds, and only one of the 212 interviewees said that she did not suppose that a person's faith had anything to do with his social orientation. Of those who gave definite responses, 10 per cent said that they would not work with a Negro on a regular job; 43 per cent said they would not accept a

Negro as a close personal friend; 64 per cent said they would not accept a Negro as a neighbor; and 55 per cent indicated that they would resent it if a Negro moved into the neighborhood.

The kinds of loose phrases and stereotypes which the interviewers were given as answers during the course of the interview indicates that perhaps there was a greater amount of prejudice than was admitted. It is a sobering experience to face the realism of the prejudice held by an adult population of this sort and expect that a brave new world will come into being simply through the training of children. One begins to wonder if the phrase, "Let us train children so they won't be prejudiced like we adults have been," is not merely a rationalization which deadens initiative and becomes the excuse for not facing honestly the problems with which we must deal.

A comparable study done in the Washington Heights neighborhood of New York City indicated that approximately 31,000 out of 103,000 thousand youths not yet 21 years of age living in the area have been exposed to the experience of interracial or interreligious conflict. Almost one quarter (23%) of the parents reported that their children had been involved in fights with members of other racial or religious groups. Only a relatively small part (6%) of the conflicts were restricted to name calling and heckling. This kind of conflict within the neighborhood is in almost direct contrast with what happens in the classrooms themselves. For, in the school, there is very little noticeable conflict. This seems to bear out Marie Syrkin's statement that children in school learn to behave ritualistically toward each other, but that the ritualism ends with the close of the school day. Consequently, there is no assurance that a program that merely reduces conflict and tension within the school has any significant relation to the prejudices and hatreds carried by the students.

The facts presented here indicate clearly that programs must be developed out of community needs, and that the community must be moved along in the process if personality changes are to be ef-

fected in the lives of youth. Consequently, the teachers must be trained to:

1. Understand community backgrounds
2. Know the techniques of community organization, and understand the responsibilities of community leadership
3. Know the resources which the neighborhoods offer in the solution of problems

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AN EDUCATION-CENTERED COMMUNITY CAN CARE FOR CHILDREN

Howard A. Lane

Long have students of human societies recognized that the measure of the quality of a social group is the care it provides for its children. A substantial portion of the ethics of the world's great religions centers about concepts such as "As ye do it unto the least of these. . . .", "Except as ye be as little children. . . .", "Suffer the children to come unto me."

In simple, agrarian societies, child care was solely a family function. As population pressure combined with a sense of social sympathy and responsibility forced him to search for knowledge as a means of survival, man has learned to prevent or control most of the dangerous children's diseases and has provided aids to families in caring for the more dire emergencies. The state has even felt justified in requiring families to provide minimum protections and opportunities such as school attendance, freedom from arduous labor, and vaccinations against some diseases. Deep within our culture, and within the reflexes of individual citizens is the concept that the care of children is the exclusive function and responsibility of families.

The current widespread neglect of little children is the unique feature of our times. Gone is the friendliness of the citizen for the children of his neighborhood. We "do it to the least of these" by writing a check at community-chest time, a check notably smaller than written for an evening's entertainment. Countless children grow without sun, grass, weather; they may get viosterol free at school and clinic. Few youngsters can have real childish fun without breaking the law. Until old and skilled enough to wear a business man's name on his back, a boy may not lawfully play ball in most American cities. He develops the skill in defiance of police,

neighbors, and "the garden beautiful." A city of a million people will have 20 to 30 children requiring immediate emergency care daily due to accident or illness, or abdication of parents. This care is commonly provided in "detention homes."

The harvest of neglect has become so enormous that the Attorney General of the United States has recently seen fit to gather representative persons in Washington to face the problem of juvenile delinquency. This current adult anger at children must be seen as an expression of the unrecognized guilt of adults in failure to care for children. This delinquency is but one of the more immediately troublesome results of the neglect of the young.

Of late, the general public has come to appreciate the importance of a well-balanced diet of appropriate foods for normal growth. An improperly fed child grows crookedly. For years, our slang has included the term "crook" for criminal. Now we see this term as being scientifically correct. Man does not live by bread alone. His soul, spirit, psyche—these demand certain nutriments not required by other creatures. A human being lacking the things he needs develops crookedly.

As in physical development, deprivation of human needs is attended by varied abberations of the growth processes. Ill-nourished children may be fat, have pellagra, have brittle bones, lose their teeth, be thin. Three manifestations of "malnutrition of the spirit" are commonly recognized. They are: dullness, neurosis, and aggression.

The mind of man grows on nourishment. Today most responsible psychologists recognize the fact of a strong cultural pull on human abilities and personality. Deprived of appropriate circumstances for development, many children develop as dull, inadequate personalities.¹

¹ George Stoddard, *The Meaning of Intelligence* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1943).

Abundant data support this contention.

Teachers commonly prefer not to teach in slums and industrial neighborhoods because the children there are so dull and do such poor work. This condition has persisted through the passing of many cultural groups through city slums to the brightness of suburbs and open residential sections.

The neuroses are diseases of civilization. Neuroses are characterized by crooked thinking, uneven growing up, maturing in concepts of human relations. In his recent, penetrating William Allison White Memorial Lecture, Dr. C. B. Chisholm² lists these neurotic symptoms, characteristic of our time, which have killed more men in battle and destroyed more property than all mankind before: prejudice, isolationism, the ability to believe, emotionally and uncritically, unreasonable things, excessive desire for material things or power, excessive fear of others, belief in a destiny to control others, vengeance, ability to avoid facing unpleasant facts and then taking the appropriate action. "These," says Dr. Chisholm, "are probably the main reasons we find ourselves involved in wars. They are all well known and recognized neurotic symptoms." It need not be argued that these manifestations of behavior flourish most profusely in areas of mean and neglectful living conditions. The protective prejudice of "poor whites" blazes forth in lynchings, gang fights, race riots. Those who have worked in blighted, overcrowded, and "poor" areas know well the fear of foreigners, the distrust of new ideas and practices, the extent of superstition reaching its apex in tabernacle religion, the bullying, the susceptibility to panic, the civic and social lethargy.

The aggressive reaction is so damaging to human relationships and so destructive as to be commonly regarded as distinct from other manifestations of frustration.³ Few predatory animals are

² C. B. Chisholm, *The Psychiatry of an Enduring Peace* (Washington, D. C.: William Allison White Psychiatric Foundation, Inc., 1946), pp. 3-11.

³ These concepts are well stated in John Dollard and others, *Frustration and Aggression* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1939).

dangerous when well fed. Fighting, vandalism, and crimes of violence abound among persons whose needs are not met. Delinquency must be seen as a measure of a community's neglect of children. It is a social phenomenon, the result of social disintegration, the lack of a community's concern for its children.⁸

The "frustrations" of our time result in large part from our failure to keep our social thinking and facilities apace with the development of industrial and distributive processes. Technology and industrialism have brought specialization, division of labor, and concentration of population. Our values and attitudes are appropriate to a simple farming community, but apartment dwelling is necessary in a large commercial city. Apartments are not good homes for children in a community that believes a good family alone provides all needed "goods" for children. Despite the current shouting about freedom of enterprise, we know that modern life is highly co-operative, imposing a high degree of interdependency. While we make automobiles and pancakes, and provide newspapers and transportation by extensive co-operation among people who may not know each other, we impose the responsibility for child care upon the individual family and allow the well-being of a child and the development of his personality to depend upon the economic fortunes, wisdom, and the concern of his own two biological parents. This is the first generation that has done so. Earlier generations co-operated informally without supervisors and budgets. This generation must do better, providing co-operatively what the children need.

Let us review these *human* needs upon which thoughtful persons are in substantial agreement: Every person requires friends, people who like him. Every child needs adult friends, grown-ups who approve of him *as he is*. Failing to find such friends in the regular channels of living, many children are driven to "bad companions" to satisfy this requirement. Scarcely ever do we find a delinquent

child who has a parent, a teacher, or a neighbor with whom he can talk without reservation.

Human beings need the security found in respect for authority—and this authority must be earned; it cannot be demanded. Almost typically, every adult in the life of a delinquent child has disqualified himself as an authority. Common methods of disqualification are: inflexible standards, unjust demands for blind obedience, harshness, moralizing, neglect.

We need to be valuable to other people, to be needed now. This is at once the central concept of "one world" and a fundamental principle of the whole personality.

We need to think well of ourselves. The sickest of all persons is he who genuinely thinks ill of himself. The right answer to the question "Aren't you ashamed of yourself?" is "No!"

We need to be captains of our own souls, to be free, to restrict our own freedom in the common interest because to do so enhances our own freedom at higher levels. It appears that the strongest natural determination of man is his resistance to the imposition of outside force.

We need to live creatively, to hold the results of our handiwork in our own hands, and to call them good. We need to plan and carry processes through to completion. We need to live with nature, to have wind and rain in our hair and mud between our toes, and to help living things grow.

We need fun, zestful experience, mild adventure.

Today few cities are built as if children were to live in them. Homes have little space. Much of our housekeeping is in direct conflict with children. Families are small, providing little association with other children. One or both parents are absent most of the child's waking hours. City police departments receive many calls daily to come disperse the children. More often than not they have no place to which to chase them.

To this writer it seems that most schools have been tragically

blind to their basic responsibilities and opportunities to educate genuinely *every* child. Every child must attend school during his most formative years. It seems axiomatic, then, to maintain that every delinquent child represents a school failure. To be sure, other institutions have failed—but the school is the one social institution to which all children *must* go. Also, its workers proclaim to the public that their expertness in education is the understanding of children.

Let us examine school procedure in terms of the needs of children. Children need friends. A persistent method of the school is fault-finding, qualitative comparison. It sets children against each other in quest of immediate gains in the achievement of purposes not genuinely sought by children. In the life of many a child the teacher is the only decent, mature adult, and this person's relation to him is one of correction and systematic tattling. Let the school and classroom become friendly places where the values of friendliness and congenial association are held to be of the highest order.

Children need to recognize and value authority. Society presumes to provide this in teachers. Too often these trained and selected persons disqualify themselves by inflexible application of common assignments, rules, and regulations. Too often does a task, a lesson, a rigid demand become more important than the child and his respect. Too often are teachers found wanting in their poses of knowing all for sure and in their unrealistic standards of peculiar school conventionality in language and behavior. The real test of a teacher's authority is to be found in the freely expressed attitudes of the children. Is the teacher voluntarily consulted when real problems arise in the child's life? If not, that teacher has no authority.

Children need to be valuable to each other. The well-organized, efficiently managed school has eliminated most of the possibilities for meeting this need. Not only does it put people of like size and age together, but it sorts them into quality groups to make children as alike as possible and thereby as useless as possible to each other.

This condition induces a struggle for significance and gives rise to strivings *against* each other rather than *for* each other. It is good to note that numerous schools are now using older children to assist with younger ones. May the time soon come when this opportunity is regarded as one of the school's major educational resources. But that is not enough. The school must devise ways of making a child's unique talents and interests assets to his associates rather than claims to distinction from them. Among delinquent children one sees a clear pattern of aversion to the approved child; these children have seldom been valued by any good person.

A child must think well of himself. He who cannot esteem himself in approved ways will find other ways. Some schools maintain narrow, standardized avenues to respectability. The school never can reach all of the children and be good for them until it accepts the values of children as valid for them. To adolescents, baseball, jitterbugging, popularity with one's peers, and lipstick are more important than the value of x in any equation. The school loses its opportunity through implying that these values conflict with each other.

Children need freedom, independence. The most significant development in modern education is to be seen in teacher-pupil planning. More and more, enlightened schools and teachers are arriving at goals and procedures through discussion and genuine planning with children. Truly, a slave is one who gets his purposes from someone else. Few delinquent children have experienced self-determination under respectable auspices.

Children need to live creatively, to feel that their efforts have observable, concrete results. Mental hygienists increasingly emphasize the lack of sanity of dealing in baseless verbalizations. For children of slower mental development and restricted experience, school life consists of a confusion of meaningless abstractions. This does not imply more careful grading of pupils. It demands a marked increase in genuinely concrete activity, of doing real things that need to be

done. Facilities and time for arts and crafts in which the child makes plans and carries them out with real materials will build character and intelligence with far greater expediency than the most idealistic sets of imposed axioms and exercises.

Children need nature. How can we afford the expense of keeping children through the many school hours and months in completely lifeless, sterile surroundings? When will schools have grass, flowers, pets, ponies, brooks? Meantime, let us seize every opportunity to make up these deficiencies. The care of flowers and small animals and watching the marvel of growth and helping it along have smoothed many wrinkled brows.

Children need fun. They need to laugh, shout, climb, jump, run, throw, take risks. Much delinquency begins in a child's quest for the mild adventure that all human beings require. In cities, for some children the old game of "cops and robbers" becomes quite realistic with police and other officials zestfully playing their parts. Schools must cherish and provide opportunities for genuine enjoyment, now.

Schools disposed to learn the lessons offered by the prevalence of delinquency and other manifestations of human deprivation will improve in these directions:

1. Assume responsibility for the adjustment and happiness of each child. The adjustment of the school to the child will be the goal, not the adjustment of the child to the school.
2. Know the child as a unique personality. This does not mean increased clinical facilities. It means an increase in free, continuous contact between teachers and pupils, the pupils and teachers being sufficiently free from imposed procedures and standardized outcomes that the children may reveal their real dispositions, motives, and attitudes.
3. Increase the school's respect for the values and immediate purposes of children.
4. Provide facilities and appropriate atmospheres for genuine experiences for children in which they may find the satisfaction of attaining immediately significant results.

5. Provide for the complete use of school facilities as long as they meet any otherwise unsatisfied need of anyone in the community.
6. Assume the professional educational leadership of the community. What other "profession" says, "We can't use our best knowledge because our patrons won't let us"?
7. Exercise increased civic responsibility and influence in the interests of children. Teachers know when their children lack play space, adequate health care, and appropriate provision for their safety. Teachers must keep the community constantly informed on the condition of its children and insist that needed provisions be supplied.
8. Grow rapidly toward being the community's cultural center for children, a place and an arrangement through which a community provides for its children's needs. A wise observer has recently stated that we shall make no progress in eradicating delinquency until a community is as much ashamed of having "bad" children as we expect a family to be.

This newly recognized and too slowly developing role of the school will be achieved only through marked re-orientation of teacher training and school leadership. To "teach" in the interests of the children means new techniques and purposes of instruction and evaluation. It requires new teachers. In this journal, Dr. Skiles Platt presents one school's approach to this new concept of teaching. Teachers in training explore, study, and serve in the community.

The professors and leaders of teachers in service require reorientation. Dare we face together our real outcomes? This most warlike generation is also the most schooled in human history. Delinquency, poverty, and meanness flourish amid our best school systems.

We are with the children daily, we know their needs. Can we who presume to be experts in human development, and in the observation of society, devise procedures quickly enough to provide for the needs of the children through the schools?

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THE NEIGHBORHOOD IS OUR CLASSROOM

Letty Telford and Jane Stewart

The Classroom

"Where will we live while the new housing project is built?" asked some children in the social-studies classroom of an elementary and near-by intermediate school.¹ "Will someone help us to find another house?" "How much will it cost?" "Who can live there?"

These questions awakened some of the teachers to the fact that their pupils had pressing problems peculiar to the neighborhood in which they lived. It was soon clear that housing was but one aspect of the neighborhood that was of vital interest to the children, and thus of concern to the schools.

The teachers did not know all the problems nor the answers. They agreed to help the children find out. A continuing project in social studies, involving both schools and a local neighborhood council, was the result.

Some facts about the neighborhood were immediately apparent. It is a part of a large industrial area of Detroit; the housing is old and rat-infested, streets are congested, alleys unsanitary. The population is mixed including a few old-time Detroiters, a large shifting Southern white group, and a small minority of Negroes. Most of the men are factory workers with little surplus energy for community activity; their wives are involved in raising children under conditions which make stable family relations most difficult. Conflicts and social tensions usually found in areas of low economic and social conditions abound in this neighborhood.

The teachers soon learned that there is more than one way to learn about neighborhoods. A teacher can consult any textbook in sociology, and read about conditions in urban slums. *Or* she can set about exploring the neighborhoods of her school with the children. In this instance, the latter approach was used.

¹The Poe Elementary School and the Jefferson Intermediate School of the Detroit Public Schools.

It took some planning to rearrange the classroom schedule to permit the Neighborhood Survey Squads in the elementary school to leave the building, with each squad having to tabulate facts as found in the blocks to which it was assigned, but it was well worth leaping the administrative hurdles. After the consent of each child's parents was obtained and safety boys were alerted to possible dangers, eight squads of five pupils each set out to study its section of the neighborhood.

Let us follow Squad no. 1: The observers go down the block, noting down the conditions of the alleys, store and factory dumps, garbage cans and rats; sketchers draw the best house on the block, and the worst; and surveyors note land use, vacant lots and potential playgrounds. Neighbors going by were interested in what these children were doing. One day they were to be invited to the school to discuss the findings. Back in class, the children eagerly compared notes:

"Oh boy, the rats in our alley—ten of 'em! Six we killed last night when we wuz out ratting. All you need is a flashlight and a stick, though a dog is a big help."

"This is a picture of the worst house on our block," a sketcher reported. "Oh yes," said another, "but you should see how nice the family that lives there has it fixed up inside."

These children were describing their neighborhood realistically. They were not getting the mistaken notion that residents alone are responsible for slums, or that nothing can be done to change conditions.

The children were taken to housing projects already completed, where they explored and questioned residents and managers. "Gee," said one manager, "the adults I show through never ask questions like these kids!"

The School as a Community Center

The plans grew and the story developed as a part of a larger tale that the community was helping to tell.

Those in the elementary school did not work just by themselves but fitted into a larger picture. Significant factors which were involved included an intermediate school and the Western District Council, an organization made up of workers from many social agencies, schools, churches, and other civic agencies who worked together with the people of the neighborhood to plan a program of action.

As far back as 1940, the area had been selected by the Council of Social Agencies for an experiment in intensive work as a part of the Western District Council's program. Trained personnel was provided to stimulate and develop leadership in the neighborhood to help these people solve their problems and alleviate bad conditions.

One of the basic objectives of these co-operating citizens had been to intensify the use of the intermediate school as a community center. The experiment ended in 1942, but the District Council continued to expand its program and the school increasingly enlarged its role as a community center. Thus teachers, children, and parents had a background in learning about the neighborhood and in developing the techniques and the spirit needed to solve their problems.

Group action in 1942 had also resulted in the Detroit Housing Commission setting up a branch office in the intermediate school, where families and teachers and children could seek answers to questions about proposed changes. The various social agencies of the council offered to help families find new homes when it became necessary, and to help educate the people of the neighborhood to realize that better housing facilities would improve their own circumstances as well as the welfare of the neighborhood.

Intermediate School Children Get a Park

Classrooms in the Intermediate School were busy too. The social-studies staff planned a complete unit on housing in its relation to neighborhood needs. Teachers worked with community people

in a Housing Committee of the council. They arranged with the city's Housing and Plan Commissions to share facts with the children and their parents who would be affected by them.

Study of the results of the surveys of the neighborhood made by the children pointed up the glaring need for recreation, and the lack of adequate provision for play space, even in the new plans. Children circulated petitions and neighbors signed them, requesting the Plan Commission to provide more and better distributed recreational space. The children followed through, too, attending the meeting at which the petitions were presented to the city council and subsequent meetings in which budgets for recreation were made. The year 1946 has seen some results. A thirty-five-acre park and playground area has been set aside adjacent to the school and housing project. Even though this will not be a reality until the housing shortage permits condemnation and rebuilding, the children and their parents now see their own tangible accomplishments.

Learning from Play Lots

The children in both schools worked together in their most recent study of the neighborhood needs for play lots for younger children. Vacant lots were marked on a large wall map in each school and children began to talk about ways the lots could be fixed up, how fathers could make sandboxes, mothers could help supervise, and what they themselves could do.

A spring and summer of intense activity resulted. Social workers and teachers found a new alertness on the part of the children. They were bursting to talk about their own play experiences in the neighborhood. A pattern of community life unfolded on many an afternoon as seven-, nine-, ten-, eleven-, and twelve-year-olds told about "life" as it appeared to them. The need was repeatedly emphasized for more opportunity for letting the children talk and for building a curriculum on the things that they said and upon genuine tasks. For example, pupils in one class complained bitterly of the neighborhood "meany," an old lady who never gave back a ball that

bounded into her garden. Discussion of possible alternatives to shouting at her netted this result. The teacher agreed with the children that some grownups are rude and unfair, but ventured to suggest that children too can be "mean." Did the children realize that this lady's garden meant a lot to her? A few days later a jubilant child reported back to class: "Why it worked—I asked her politely for the ball and she turned around all of a sudden and gave it to me!"

Neighborhood and agency pessimists who complained that older children made it hard for the little ones to play received a setback when one day the children talked with the District Council's Recreation Committee about their problems at play. It was a six-year-old who denied that the twelve-year-olds were troublemakers. "No," he said, pointing to a big boy in the room, "he helped me to learn to kick a football." Discussions like these pointed to the need for more stress on family and human relations in elementary school, as well as in the college classrooms of their teachers.

The Bureau for Intercultural Education, through Dr. Paul Weinandy, became interested in the work and took pictures of the children at work in school and in the neighborhood. These were made into a kodachrome slide set which was most useful in stimulating worth-while discussions among the children themselves, in other schools, and in meetings sponsored by groups in other neighborhoods.

The latest spring planning for recreation included work in the intermediate school in the shop classes, with boys making model equipment for a play lot, including sandboxes and see saws from discarded city scrap lumber. Girls volunteered and planned to help supervise the lots during the summer. The younger children helped select the lot they wanted to use the most, and took letters home to their parents inviting them to come and help plan. Pupils and citizens learned how to arrange to proceed in securing the right to use vacant land.

The American Friends Service Committee sent three students

into the area during this past summer, who, with the help of several teachers-in-training, at Wayne University, were able to work with the neighbors in developing play lots and to promote activities for both the teen-agers and the adults. Work was done with both the Negro and white families so that some of the racial tensions were eased. One Negro boy from another area, visiting the block of Negro families where the school's model play equipment had been set up, heard an adult say: "At that school, children are children, regardless of their color." Old enough to enter another intermediate school that fall he asked his aunt if he could go to "that school." Now he lives with her five days a week, works week ends to earn enough money for his food and his carfare home on Friday night, and goes to this intermediate school. This was one result of a sandbox. Parents were pleased too: "Why this is the first time we ever had a chance for all of us to do things together—old folks, young folks, and folks in between."

Experiences in the broad classroom of the neighborhood which was used in the area just described have proved that education can mean something in the lives of children. By studying their own back yards, and by participating themselves in a program of action, these children, and their parents and neighbors, are learning that their problems can be solved, and that all groups in the neighborhood can work together. Training for citizenship begins at home. Its subject matter consists of the needs of the pupils, their families, and neighbors. Its method is the discovery of techniques and the planning of democratic action to cause people to keep constantly aware of the needs of the people, and to satisfy them.

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TRAINING TEACHERS FOR MODERN EDUCATION: THE PRE-SERVICE PROGRAM OF NEW YORK UNIVERSITY

Clara Skiles Platt

The limitation and narrowness of teacher-training programs from the standpoint of their relation to basic social and cultural characteristics of American life has created one of the most serious problems that educators face. The curricula of many teacher-training institutions are largely aggregates of courses and areas of study required by institutions or state departments instead of integrated four-year programs which recognize social changes, the role of culture, and the values, conflicts, and potentialities of the emerging new patterns of culture.

The *re-vision* of the major purposes of education is as complex as contemporary society and, therefore, takes into account the rapid social evolution and its attendant needs and problems, especially those related to the basic needs of children and youth. Programs for teacher training then should be revised, broadened, and deepened to include studies of facts and forces affecting local and national groups of people—social and economic processes, and the needs and contributions of individuals, groups, nations, and races. Problems of the community, of the country, and of the world should be looked upon as problems of the schools. The whole program of teacher preparation could well be geared to a comprehensive study of social phenomena; the courses in general education as well as those in professional education should have social orientations. For example, areas of study such as survey courses in social science, social processes, community backgrounds, modern socio-economic problems, and political science might be designed to give prospective teachers a special understanding of the society of which they, the schools, and their pupils are parts.

Ten years ago the faculty of the Department of Early Childhood and Elementary Education of the School of Education at New York University, recognizing some of these problems, undertook to work out a revision of its undergraduate program with a view to attaining their solution. The following plans and proposals were set up as guides for this work:

1. The four-year program should become an experimental curriculum worked out under the following principles:
 - a) Curricular changes should be based on recent work, recommendations, and findings of state and national organizations as well as on the recognized needs of teachers and schools in Greater New York
 - b) Curricular changes should take into full account the problems, rapid changes, and basic needs of contemporary American life
 - c) Curricular changes should lead to an education of teachers that has greater depth and breadth than that offered by the original curriculum—a broad, general education supplemented by contacts and experiences with a variety of cultural groups, and with adequate specialized preparation in both academic and cultural fields
 - d) Curricular changes should satisfy the threefold needs of prospective teachers: their needs as individuals, as citizens, and as members of the teaching profession; and, in so doing, it should help each student become integrated within himself and with his environment
 - e) Curricular changes should be based on trends and needs of society and on trends and needs of elementary education; therefore the curriculum should be flexible and be indigenous to the Greater New York area
 - f) Curricular changes relating to area or course units of instruction in both general and professional education should have social orientations
2. The curriculum should organize curricular materials, contents, and experiences along the following lines:
 - a) The four-year program should qualify students for city, state, and adjoining states certification
 - b) The various fields of study should promote an understanding of

the basic concepts, principles, relationships, and generalizations of education rather than the acquisition of facts of information

- c) The general education should be comprehensive in scope and so organized that it provides integration of knowledge. The major areas should be social studies, sciences and mathematics, English, music and art, and human growth and development
- d) Field experiences should be emphasized as essential in areas dealing with human growth and behavior, arts and related creative activities, and social studies and community understanding

3. The curriculum should set up a selective admissions and guidance program along the following lines:

- a) Selection of students
 - (1) High-school records
 - (2) Health histories and physical examinations
 - (3) Personal data
 - (4) Interviews
 - (5) Interest in children and adults and interest and skill in some of the arts such as music, the dance, theater, literature, and the crafts
 - (6) Interest and skill in sports or outdoor life
 - (7) Evidence of personal drive, power, and independence in planning and carrying out work and determining career
- b) Guidance as an integral part of the curriculum and the developmental processes of student growth
 - (1) Acquaintance with and understanding of each student through exploration and study of home environment, interests and abilities, and previous school and extracurricular experiences
 - (2) Individual and group work based on the needs, abilities, plans, and potentialities of each student

The Curriculum Content—Organization and Activities

The high schools from which most of the members of the freshman classes came used courses of study prescribed by the state and city education authorities. The programs of these high schools were made up of certain units of English, history, science, mathematics, languages, and some electives in the arts. Each unit was composed of several distinct courses and each course was taught by a different

instructor. The separation of subject matter (taught by different teachers and methods) tended to produce separatism and disintegration in the educational program, to say nothing of what happened to the students.

From empirical and scientific studies, and from the records of human progress, there is evidence that maturing young people strive to assimilate the basic knowledge of the world, to establish relationships between the various areas of knowledge, and to understand which areas deal with reality and practical everyday living and which deal with ideals to be sought. The variance between the needs and experiences of young people and the use and interpretation of knowledge taught them in their high schools was especially critical at this time.

The staff members of New York University who were responsible for organizing a curriculum for the purpose of meeting the needs of young people and for training teachers for the elementary schools faced the problems of organizing the basic knowledge and of studying the essential needs of a selected group of young people in such a way that the interdependence of the two would promote the growth of each student and the advancement of education in contemporary society. The basic requisites had to do with organized bodies of knowledge and materials which students could use in studies of culture, work, and problems of the various groups of people in contemporary society. Other requisites dealt with the working relationships of students and of the basic knowledge for the welfare of society.

The term "general education" was interpreted as the area of education which emphasized the common heritage and common aspirations of people of all kinds and in all walks of life with the purpose of facilitating mutual understanding and fulfilling the common human needs. The term "professional education" was interpreted as the area of education which emphasized the study of children and youth as individuals and how they learn and develop,

of schools as social institutions, and of the procedure by which functional areas of related knowledge are used as means of educating children and youth.

Courses were interpreted as units of study in which students and teachers worked together on portions of the general and professional education program in such a way that each student should develop an understanding of himself and society in their relation to each other and to the common heritage and common needs of all people. Such courses were integral parts of a whole program for a year or more for a group of students who had common needs and plans. For example, the freshman program dealt with "studies of peoples" that were related to the various national backgrounds of the students in the freshman class. The courses World Civilization, Types of (World) Literature, Music Survey, Arts and Crafts, Introduction to Science, Personal Living, and Human Development followed their descriptive titles, but the material and areas of study were worked out in relation to each other and in relation to the needs and interests of the freshmen students in Curriculum I. During the first term of the year, the course World Civilization was a study of the peoples of Spain, Germany, France, Italy, Russia, India, and Greece. The courses in literature, music, arts and crafts, science, personal living, and human development were related as closely as was practicable and profitable to the study as a whole, and to the needs, interests, and backgrounds of the students. In addition to the teachers' basic material and the experiences and knowledge of the students, a variety of supplementary materials from such institutions as museums, libraries, and community centers in New York City were used. Also, through trips and meetings with people of the various cultural groups, the students extended their studies of people.

During the sophomore year, the study of people was continued, but American life and culture were emphasized. The courses in American history, English, music, rhythmic activities, arts and

crafts, and child study began with studies of American people at the present time and worked back to the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. With the exception of the teacher of American life and culture, the sophomore courses were taught by the same teachers who taught the corresponding freshman courses. The common interests, experiences, and background of the students and teachers gave this year's study a momentum and sense of direction. The basic course materials were supplemented by an abundance of materials from the museums, libraries, and historical associations. Slides, picture collections, motion pictures, exhibits, and the various houses preserved in the city from colonial times were used by committees, by the whole class, and by the teachers throughout the year. The theaters, art studios, and concert halls were used in connection with drama, dance, art, and music. The settlement houses, play-school centers, after-school programs, health centers and clinics, W.P.A. nurseries, and children's rooms in the libraries were the laboratories where the sophomores studied and worked with children.

At the same time that the integration of courses was being carried out each course grew in breadth and depth. For example, reading lists were revised frequently and in light of the needs of the students; the field work was planned for definite purposes; plans and programs were worked out and tickets made available so that students could go to the theater, to dance programs, and to concerts at regular intervals. Such activities came to be regarded by some of the teachers as equal in importance to the written work and required readings.

In the junior year, the study of people was organized around definite groups of people in communities in or near Greater New York. The courses Child and Curriculum, School and Society, and Philosophy and Principles of Education were closely related and dealt with adults and children, and their backgrounds and needs as the basis of the school and its program. Communities of varied,

representative types within the New York area were selected by the teachers and students of these courses. The course, Child and Curriculum, was taught by the teacher who had taught Child and Environment in the sophomore year and thus served as the co-ordinating agency for the junior program. The basic source materials for this study were gleaned from the communities after the students began their participation in the schools within the communities. Each committee of students set up studies of the children in the school in which they participated as follows: national, racial, social, and economic backgrounds; school and community activities of the children; institutions of the community which offered constructive, active interest in the children (other than the school); housing, health and medical facilities, markets, transportation, and provision for recreation; the school plant and its facilities for the wholesome growth of children; the general aims of the school program, the specific aims and the program of the various classes in which students participated, the number of children in the school and in each class in relation to the facilities provided; the health and recreational facilities for the children; and the social and working relationship of parents and teachers, and of parents, teachers, and other social agencies in the community.

During the senior year the courses Student Teaching and Problems of the Elementary School dealt with the last phase of the four-year study of people: the understanding and skills necessary for educational leadership in the school and the community. These courses were taught by the teacher who had taught the other professional courses and so made full use of the students' three years of common background and study. The courses were organized on the basis of the needs of the class groups in the public and private schools where the students served as full-time assistant teachers, and also on the needs of the individual student teachers. The work involved one full year of teaching—one semester in each of two distinctly different schools, both of which were chosen from

the schools where the student did her junior participation and community study. The purpose was to give potential teachers opportunities to sense needs, problems, and potentialities in individual children, in groups of children, and in the school and the community, and to help the classroom teachers provide a variety of constructive means for satisfying the needs, working out the problems, and developing the potentialities of the children, the school, and the community. This involved work with teachers, administrators, and the parents, and with community resources such as libraries; playgrounds; museums; fire, transportation, sanitation, and police departments; markets and other food supply centers; boards of health; courts; and welfare organizations. It should be noted that (1) the course and materials for student teaching did not include "model schools" or "demonstration schools" and "approved ways things should be done," but instead used schools and communities which were representative of all areas of Greater New York, and (2) that the ways of working with children were based on the needs and understanding of each child and group and, in all cases, were ways to help children grow and develop through such simple, common needs as work, play, rest, and eating.

Most of the courses in general education in the four-year programs, as well as those in professional education, had professional aspects and therefore contributed in varying degrees to the integration of knowledge and the understanding of the people studied by the students. Such courses provided opportunities for each student to see, to hear about, to discuss, and to take part in the social life of a variety of groups of people. The students learned that literature, art, and music were effective means of expression and that most people can use these means with varying degrees of satisfaction to express their ideas, hopes, and problems. They began to look upon science from the point of view that it opens opportunities (1) to better understanding of people's adjustment to their environment and (2) to ways by which people can modify their environment to

their purposes. They came to realize that, as teachers, they needed selected subject matter and materials of pertinent application to present-day needs of society and, with this in view, both students and teachers sought to distinguish the provinces of education for teachers and for "specialists."

Field Work and Experiences with Children

"Learning is experiencing and participating in the activities of civilization; it is an interacting process between the individual and the environment."¹ It is becoming more and more apparent that these two principles govern good education on all levels of the school system. The guiding principle, then, should be to arrange the school program and school environment so that it will produce learning, and, to carry this idea further, the elements which go into the education of young American citizens should be incorporated in the training of teachers. If the teacher-training institutions accept this premise, studies of the environment as integral parts of the school program become one of the first essentials in teacher-training curricula. Of the various environmental units, the community is most frequently used for study since it is an entity with common interests and activities and is a natural laboratory for learning. Whether this laboratory is rural, urban, industrial, poverty stricken, elite, desirable, or undesirable, it is an area where children live and learn through the environmental factors with which they come in contact.

The curriculum has been defined as all the things that children living in a society do.² The school, then, as the most important educational agency in the community, is responsible for organizing the curriculum to include all the things which children do. The

¹ Aubrey Douglas, "Preliminary Report of Committees on 'Scope and Sequence of Major Learnings in the Curriculum,'" *California Journal of Elementary Education*, May 1936, p. 201.

² Harold Rugg, *American Life and the School Curriculum* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1936).

function of the teacher in such a school is to know and understand the community so well that she can organize creatively the school activities and curricular materials to make them indigenous and related to the children's lives. In addition she has the responsibility of evaluating the conditions and facts of the present and of developing plans for the future that have to do with the growth and welfare of the children. In building the curriculum for such a school, the sources and studies used are gleaned from the life of the community: in the homes, on the streets, in the market places, in play areas and recreation centers. Education so worked out is based on people's problems, plans, and needs and is as broad as life itself.³

Since preparation for teaching is coming to be preparation for what seems to be the most fundamental form of social service, field experiences integrated with discussion, collateral reading, and lectures in all courses should provide learning that has meaning, understanding, and wide application. The guiding principles and factors used in setting up the curriculum field work are the following:

1. In order to promote the experience and understanding of more people, teachers should become persons rich in firsthand experiences and in broad understanding of the many aspects of our culture.
2. In order to provide effective education for all age levels, teachers should be given opportunities to gain expert understanding of the processes of human living, growing, and learning.
3. In order to guide young people to follow democratic processes in their own living, teachers should be given opportunities to gain understanding through practice in democratic processes in group planning, in group evaluation and self-evaluation in classroom procedures, in programs of extraclass activities, and in all areas of living.
4. In order to help people better satisfy their needs, teachers should be given opportunities to investigate how people are housed, clothed, and fed; and how people are affected by economic forces and practices, traditional attitudes, and processes of government.

³ Alonzo Myers, Louise Kifer, and others, *Cooperative Supervision in the Public Schools* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1938), pp. 1-14.

5. In order to help the public, especially parents and community leaders, teachers should be given opportunities to bring about such close relationship of the school and the community that the schools become truly community schools.

6. In order to cultivate harmonious relationships with the community in which the teacher-training institution is located, the potential teachers should be given opportunities to participate in as many forms of community activities as possible.

7. In order to co-ordinate and make useful the broad variety of non-school educational agencies in the college community, the potential teachers should be given opportunities to show how such agencies as the radio, libraries, playground associations, fire department, police department, markets, motion-picture houses, theaters, museums, board of health and other welfare organizations can increase their effectiveness and develop mutual understanding and closer co-operation.

8. In order to make instructional and teaching materials more directly related to needs of boys and girls, to the end that improvement may be effected in the way they eat, rest, play, and work, potential teachers should be given opportunities to experiment with new ideas, activities, and materials, and to omit certain unrelated, traditional subject matter found in many courses of study in the elementary schools.

9. In order to give leadership in curriculum development, potential teachers should be given opportunities to explore the community and use it as an integral part of the school program.

10. In order to help teachers become expert in guiding the process of living, growing, and learning for young people, potential teachers should have opportunities to work with chosen groups of children for stated periods of time under supervision. Student teachers should have opportunities to study the children, to organize and plan materials and activities for boys and girls in the light of their needs and potentialities, and to demonstrate their ability and skill in working with children to the degree that will qualify them for teaching positions.

During the freshman year, there were three types of field work: (1) trips and investigations of resources related to social studies; (2) trips and experiences related to the arts; and (3) trips and observations related to the care of children. Included in the first category were museums, consular offices, travel agencies, The Interna-

tional House where students from various nations lived together while attending colleges or universities in the city, broadcasting stations, restaurants specializing in the food and customs of the various nations, and the many libraries and book collections in Greater New York.

The students who had particular interests in the theater, art, music, dance, and motion pictures organized committees which kept the class groups informed on the current offerings in the city and made arrangements for group trips and visits.

In the third category were trips to and studies of both public and private institutions such as the Harriet Johnson Nursery School, Christadora House, the Brooklyn Hebrew Orphan Asylum, the Children's Nursery at Bellevue Hospital, Public Schools 11 and 33, the City and Country School, and the Little Red Schoolhouse.

During the sophomore year, the field work followed the three types used during the freshman year but with different emphasis. The work in American life and culture and the work with children consumed most of the students' out-of-class time. However, interest in the dance and in arts and crafts continued and grew. Most of the students had season tickets to a series of dance programs which were worked out in connection with their work in the rhythmic-activities class. When the class group got into the early American studies, they organized their work around the homes of the people, work of the people, modes of travel and communication, and the music and handicrafts of the people.

The field work related to the child-study course involved observation, participation, and some work in the study of a neighborhood near the university. The class as a group visited a baby health clinic, a home for infants, and a private and philanthropic day nursery, and attended an annual meeting of state representatives of the Association of Childhood Education held in New York City. The staff and the students worked out plans which gave each one a four- to six-hour period each week for eight weeks to work with

children. Arrangements were made and students volunteered their services at public and private schools, settlement houses, and day nurseries.

The following term, the questions and problems relating to neighborhoods, streets, schools, playgrounds, and other places where children spend various portions of their time were so numerous and so involved that, in an effort to understand the children with whom the students worked, a study of a particular neighborhood as a child's world was planned and carried out. The class was divided into committees for work in the following areas of the study: housing in relation to population; character and location of business and industry; racial, religious, and national backgrounds of people; playgrounds, settlement houses, and other recreational centers; and schools. The facts were collected and recorded in notes, sketches, photographs, and maps.

The biggest undertaking in field work for this group was a three-day trip to Washington, D. C., planned in connection with the work in the American-life-and-culture course to visit the various government buildings and observe government organizations in action.

By the time the students reached the junior year, they were aware of the complexity of people's problems in living and working together and had a growing understanding of basic human relations and of the factors which influence these relations. They were particularly aware of the problems and needs of children, and of the role which education played or should play in certain communities. They wanted to know more about the institutions in each community whose purposes were to help in the various areas of "welfare." With these things in mind, the field work was organized so that each student spent two half days each week for six to eight weeks in each of four schools during the year. Plans for the students involved, in addition to classroom observation and participation, a thorough study of the community—a study based on

the children's backgrounds and starting with the children's records in school. It included (1) backgrounds of the people of the community: national and racial, social and economic; (2) housing, marketing, and transportation facilities; (3) organizations and facilities which offered recreation and opportunities for participation in music, dance, art, the different crafts, sports, and forums; (4) health facilities, both public and private; (5) welfare organizations, their purposes, services, and means of support; (6) the school as a physical plant, the facilities it afforded for classwork, play, rest, health and medical services, and meals; (7) the general aims of the school program; (8) the aims and objectives of the teacher with whom the students worked and the program provided to meet these aims and objectives; (9) the teacher's understandings of children and her attitude toward them; (10) the number of children in the school and in each class group; (11) the relationships between the teachers and the school administrators, and the teachers and the social agencies in the community. The students worked in the public and the private schools representing as many types of communities as can be found in Greater New York. All of this field work was carefully planned and supervised and was integrated with classwork in the child-and-curriculum and school-and-society courses. Discussions, reading, and lectures were regular parts of the class procedure.

The final field work of the junior year was a ten-day trip through New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and into Virginia. Twenty-eight students and two teachers visited and studied farms and villages, coal mines, a revived community in a mining area, and historic communities and sites in Williamsburg and Charlottesville, Virginia. Coming at the end of the year's study of American life and culture, this trip clarified and related many points and problems. It also brought new problems and concerns to their attention.

The work of the senior year of one class is summarized and evaluated in the following report for that year as it was made by the curriculum director to the chairman of the Department of Early Childhood and Elementary Education:

Some fairly definite lines of progress are indicated in the fourth year of the experiential program offered in the Department of Early Childhood and Elementary Education to undergraduates. We have attempted to develop competent, growing, creative persons who feel secure in their relationships and undertakings in the University in the field; to open multiple avenues of work and exploration in and around Greater New York to all students; to discover and develop potentialities in the students and to give them positive direction in practical community work with groups of children and adults; to establish relationships and understandings in ever-widening areas; to create in every student a sense of belonging and of serving, and an understanding of the interdependence of people; to encourage the "reaches" and efforts of students who want to make themselves vital parts of community forces; to reveal the needs for knowing environments and their part in human development; and finally to study *thoroughly* the child, his nature and needs, in all stages of his development in the situation in which we find him.

The faculty counselors have tried to serve as co-ordinators between the University with its requirements and the communities with their needs as the students take double roles in shuttling from the academic-theoretical to the practical, and vice versa. The graduating group has developed personal-professional qualities and made achievements which speak for themselves in the following facts:

1. Each student has taught from 8:30 A.M. to 3:00 P.M. five days per week from the opening of the various schools in September through May 15.
2. The average teaching hours were 785, the maximum 969, and the minimum 600, for the year.
3. Each student has taught one term in a public school and one in a private school.
4. Each has taught one term in the lower elementary school and one term in the upper elementary school.
5. Seven points of University credit were given for each term's work.

6. The students in each school surveyed the community in which they worked: housing, recreation, economic status of families, business and industry, nationalities and religions represented, and any other factors influencing the lives of the children and their parents.

7. Each student surveyed her class: ages, general abilities and interests, past records, case histories where available, previous school experiences, home backgrounds, and important comments made by the teacher which might serve as principles and point to problems.

8. Each student spent some time in observation, a great deal of time in participation, but the major part of her time in responsible teaching.

9. Each student took responsibility in *all classroom work* and activities, in music, in art and crafts, on the playground, and at luncheon service, rest periods, and assembly programs.

10. Each student planned and assisted in near-by and extended trips.

11. Each student attended faculty meetings (when open to students), and parent meetings, and assisted in community holiday celebrations.

12. Six students organized and ran after-school clubs.

13. One half of the students served as substitutes when the regular teachers were absent, the time ranging from two days to two weeks.

14. One half of the students worked out musical and dramatic programs with the children and presented them to parent groups and school groups.

The final field work of the senior students was a ten-day trip through New England, to Montreal, and back through New York State. The group, consisting of the entire class and two teachers, visited and studied old and modern New England, especially the coast towns, and the villages and cities all the way from New York to Portland, Maine; the farm-life dairying, and small factory towns in Massachusetts, Maine, and Vermont; and the Hudson River Valley where conferences were held with farmers and with county farm agents from Cornell University.

Guidance

Throughout the four-year period guidance was looked upon as an aspect of all learning and therefore centered in learning situations. The guidance program recognized the students' qualities and

potentialities and used the total facilities of the university, personal and physical, to set up plans, programs, and experiences which provide for their development and growth. The organization of instruction was worked out to meet the needs of each individual and of the class groups. If evidences of problems or maladjustment arose, they were diagnosed and treated before serious trouble occurred. Certain basic needs, such as success and sharing in co-operative endeavor, belonging to a group, a feeling of security, a sense of direction, contact with reality, and some achievement toward goals were recognized as being closely related to personal and professional growth. Records of facts, experiences, plans, and needs were made by teachers and students, and used in light of the students' development and needs. These formed the basis for next steps in choosing materials, setting up goals, and planning activities. Appraisal and evaluation were continuous and had to do with individual and group growth through individual and group work. In this work, guidance was considered essential to the effective teacher, and the teacher was considered essential to good guidance.

Selection of Students

Some forms of selection have been used throughout the history of teacher training but a review of studies of the past twelve years indicates that it is not possible to predict with accuracy whether or not an individual will become a superior teacher. However, such qualities as good mental ability, scholastic achievements, sound physical and mental health, wide cultural interests (essentially social), a pleasing personality, and sincerity of purpose have stood out as the best indications of success.

With these and other factors as the bases of selection, the following procedure was set up and has been adopted for all applicants to New York University's undergraduate program for the training of teachers for early childhood and elementary schools: (1) an

initial interview, (2) a detailed written report of personal data on the form provided by the department, and (3) a second interview based on the information gleaned by the curriculum director from the personal data sheet and the high-school record.

Throughout the interview the curriculum director looks for evidence of the student's interest in people as indicated, for example, by the degree of pleasure derived from work and play with her peers and with children; her attitudes toward such experiences as those connected with camp, library, playground, or other community institutions serving groups of children; her degree of pride or satisfaction which came from high-school activities; her physical stamina; her favorite skills in relation to sports and areas of the arts; the quality and use of her speech and voice; her sense of direction in making and carrying out plans; and her curiosity and concern in sources of information in current affairs both local and remote.

On the basis of available data on the pre-service prediction of teaching ability, the department believes that the judgment and opinions of the curriculum director and one or two members of the staff based on such data as contained in the department's personal data sheet are better than selection based on batteries of standard achievement and ability tests, especially for that phase of the selection which comes before the opening of school.

In the broad sense, selection has come to be viewed as not one event at the opening of a school term but a series of experiences in a long process. These experiences and many factors contributing to successful teaching are not susceptible to direct measurements but they should be of vital importance in the long-term selection (one to three semesters), when they are studied in relation to the over-all freshman and sophomore programs. It is the opinion of the staff that the selection of potential teachers of early and later childhood should include the best possible measurement of education in terms of social progress, human relationships, and good teaching personalities.

Some Basic Analysis of the Teacher-Training Program

In the final analysis, the writer feels that our experiences in revising the program of the undergraduate Department of Early Childhood and Elementary Education at New York University demonstrates that if the department is to accept its responsibility in the improvement of the education of teachers it will be necessary for it to exemplify the kind of teaching it wants the graduates to use when they take their places in the public and private schools. Therefore, the following proposals seem to be fundamental to the program which it provides for the preparation of teachers:

General Education. If the primary responsibility of education is the development of understanding of society and the desire to participate constructively in it, the greatest need of teachers in the present period of American history is a broad, comprehensive body of information based on the common heritage of people of all kinds and a common set of ideas and ideals based on the common needs and aspirations of people of all kinds. Such information may be classified as general education and should be basic curricular material in all teacher education. Whether this basic material is organized through history and social-studies areas, through an integrated social-studies sequence, or through a general social-education program which emphasizes the "social" to the degree that it permeates all phases of the curriculum, potential teachers should have opportunities to study, discuss, and have experiences in analyzing and facing problems of human needs, relations, and welfare. Problems which might be used are as follows:

- a) Human and natural resources in modern civilization*
- b) Workers, management, and government*
- c) Goods and services: food, clothing, shelter, economic organization, and consumer education*
- d) Proposed roads for American economy*
- e) Propaganda and public opinion*
- f) Racial, religious, ethnic, social, and economic relationships*
- g) Ways of living in other nations*

- h) World views and ideologies
- i) Efforts toward and problems in preserving peace
- j) War: backgrounds and results

Professional Education. If the primary responsibility of teacher education is the development of understanding of the role of education in society, teachers need a full knowledge and understanding of schools, of children, of human growth and development, and of the institutions and agencies which have responsibilities in the program of education. Such information and material should be basic curricular material in all teacher education. Whether this material is organized in broad educational areas or in related courses, the potential teachers should have opportunities to study, to discuss, to observe, and to participate in such areas of learning as the following:

- a) Personal development and self-understanding: life and growth, personality, sex and marriage, human needs in terms of mental hygiene and psychology
- b) Home, school, friends: immediate educational problems, school-age groups, school government, peers, and age relationships
- c) Health and related human needs: heredity, disease, modern medical science, diet and food, rest and recreation
- d) Schools, education in broad terms, self-education, cost and financial support of education, and the co-operating educational agencies
- e) Vocations and professions: varieties of work, work experience as preparation for job and profession

A Social Frame of Reference. If living and learning are social processes, then all areas of the curriculum and each course within each area should be directly related to human welfare. The problems of everyday living and learning in community-neighborhood-school-class situations cut across and include all aspects of human living and therefore should be integral parts of all areas of the curriculum. If education, its processes, and its programs respond to the needs of all individuals within the social context of the present-

day culture, teachers and potential teachers should select materials and methods directly related to the problems and needs of people.

Students: Their Potentialities, Needs, and Goals. If one of the basic tenets of democracy is recognition of and respect for the uniqueness, worth, and dignity of each person, then teacher-training institutions in America have as their major responsibility the recognition of students' potentialities, needs, and goals as basic to personal and professional growth. The first consideration in curriculum building should be the ways and means of recognizing and developing the human resources in each year's student body. Each department and teacher should accept each student as a potential teacher; as an important person in the teacher-training institution, as one who brings unique experiences and contributions to the educational program. Teaching then includes the work of organizing, stimulating, and guiding the activities that make use of individual and group potentialities and abilities.

Evaluation of Student Growth. If evaluation is based upon and is an integral part of learning and teaching, it should be an aid to students and teachers in setting up and carrying out educational programs. Evaluation then should be an evolving process in each stage of development in each area of work rather than a set pattern of measurement with inflexible standards for students to meet at a given time. The appraisal of end results becomes one item among many in the evaluation process; planning and setting up problems are major items. Basic to all evaluation, as in teaching, is information on each student's educational and family background, his abilities, his interests, and his social and emotional adjustment. At the center of all evaluation activities comes the organization of experiences, reading, discussing, and writing on all phases of the area being studied. Over a period of time, records of all types of experiences should be accumulated in a file kept for each student. The teacher's evaluation materials fall into two categories: subjective and objective, or standardized data. Tests on speech, written Eng-

lish, reading, health, and general ability serve as diagnostic measures in the areas of prognosis and recommendations for each student, but the best of tests tend to measure separate aspects of the functioning personality. They are in no way adequate in providing the data necessary to evaluate the central tendencies of individuals, nor the motivations or goals that guide the actions and work of students. In order to carry on a sound, well-balanced evaluation program, plans and the work of the students and teachers should be used as basic subjective materials.

Faculty and Student Schedules. If faculty-student relationships and class meetings are effective for education and guidance, the institutional organization should provide for frequent, regularly planned class periods as well as for group and individual conferences. With such time and working relationships, the students have a variety of opportunities and avenues appropriate for their needs and work, and the faculty can use their time and the institutional facilities to the best advantage. Such scheduling is basic to good guidance. Teachers have opportunities to help students plan and gain control over their learning instead of giving them questions and "the answers." Such organization for student-faculty work would obviate the pretense to education which goes on in large classes where students meet the faculty in one- or two-hour periods once each week.

Organization of Areas of the Curriculum. If the curriculum for training elementary-school teachers is to emphasize the total experience and growth of potential teachers in a given term or series of terms, it will be necessary to minimize divisions of subject matter and subject-matter courses and to unify related subject-matter areas. All subject matter should be organized around major centers of learning and in relation to the needs of freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior groups of students.

Teaching Load. If each member of the staff is to create and maintain an interest in the best all-around development of students as

persons and as prospective teachers, his teaching load should include time and opportunities to work with each student on the basis of his needs. Time for group and individual conferences is as essential as time for class lectures and discussions.

Also, time should be provided for committee work related to broad and specific problems in education within the institution and in the local, state, and national organizations. Participation in socially significant activities in the community is fundamental in teacher growth and leadership and should be recognized as part of the teacher's load.

The Roles of Teacher and Specialist. If the emphasis in teacher training is on "total experience," "integrated learning," and "unity of areas of knowledge," then the teacher and the specialist are placed in new and more closely related positions with the specialists used to extend the broad, common education of prospective teachers instead of offering intensive courses which are largely ends in themselves. In some institutions the role of the specialists in the various subject-matter fields is that of consultants to the teachers and students as they work together on major areas of learning. This is a step in the right direction; but closer co-operation among specialists, teachers, and students is needed if scholarship is to have full orientation in relation to the contemporary social life which the urgency of our time demands, and students are led to look upon new discoveries, scientific findings, and other data, such as regional studies and the modern type of documented historical narratives, as source materials for their studies of people and human needs.

Classrooms as Laboratories. If classrooms are laboratories for work and study, the equipment in them should be appropriate for the various areas of the teacher-training program. Just as science rooms and arts-and-crafts rooms are set up for their programs, so should the classrooms for social studies and human development be equipped to serve their full purposes. Such things as movable

furniture, library facilities, files, visual aids, radio and phonograph equipment, are essential items in such a laboratory setup. Type-writers, dictaphones, and stenographic assistance should be provided to facilitate, for both students and teachers, the making and preserving of records, reports, conference notes, and, in general, the recording of the progress of the students as they function in workshop situations.

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SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS IN EDUCATION

St. Louis and Its Educational Leadership

E. George Payne

To understand progress, or lack of it, one must estimate the place and potency of a variety of social forces which are operative in effecting social change. This sort of evaluation is fundamentally and vitally necessary in the examination of the schools of St. Louis and the changes that have taken place over the past half century of their development. No apology is necessary in selecting this city for reporting what has happened educationally, for no city in the country has been subjected to such varying influences for good and evil as has this Midwest metropolis.

St. Louis in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century had in its educational staff, particularly in its administrative staff, unusual leadership. Harris, Soldan, Blewett, and Withers were in the superintendency and these men were not only scholars, but they stood out among the nation's foremost educators, each making not only a contribution to St. Louis' educational system, but to the whole country's educational progress. They are each too well known to detail their various contributions. What were the social forces in operation that gave this city an unusual share of educational integrity, of intelligence, and of creative leadership? This is the problem we wish to examine briefly in this article.

After a period in which the Board of Education of the city reached a high mark of political manipulation and sought to use the school system for its personal purposes exclusively, the citizenship arose, sought help from the state legislature, and selected a board of an extremely high order to define the educational policy of the system and select its personnel, and the board was wise enough to leave the formulation and execution of the policy to the educational personnel selected by it. Space does not permit the examination of the social forces operative that led to this public

action, but the study of these social forces would make a significant piece of educational research which such an organization as Phi Delta Kappa ought to undertake.

The essential achievement of these men was to create educational units small enough for a principal and his teachers to manage efficiently. No elementary school had more than fifteen hundred pupils and each school was headed by a principal selected for his educational and social fitness. I am sure it can be said without possible contradiction that no school system in the country had a superior body of educational leaders. The selection of the men was the work of the superintendents, with the complete backing of the board. It may be said that the St. Louis schools reached the zenith of efficiency and achievement by the end of the second decade of the twentieth century. It had set the American standard in the qualification of its administrative leaders; it had led in the selection and organization of the materials of instruction, that is, the curriculum; it had excelled in its program for the education of its beginning teachers, and, finally, it had organized a program for the education of teachers in service that became standard for the country. These and many more achievements, too numerous to detail, were realized in this city, the pride of its citizens, and the envy of cities throughout the country.

In view of the facts enumerated here, it is not less than amazing that during the third and fourth decades of the century the schools should have fallen from this top place to a point where no one could have pride in their status. They not only failed to go forward at a time when education was moving forward by leaps and bounds, but they sank lower in the esteem of educators generally. St. Louis lost its creative leadership. It even lost the respect of its forward-looking citizens.

The fundamental cause of this loss of status cannot be considered here. Whether it was the loss of vision and interest of the people or the vicious contrivance of political "gangsters" that accounted

mainly for the decline, further research will have to determine. It is true that the quality of the Board of Education deteriorated to a point where a group of self-seeking politicians skilled in the art of public deception dominated the policy-making body of the schools, with the result that years of conflict and uncertainty occurred in which the creative leadership of the city was stifled. The sordid history of those years is well known to American educators. It is difficult to believe that a school system could be so transformed under evil influences in such a short period; but such is the case.

There is, however, evidence of reawakened interest that may be the beginning of a renaissance for the schools of this great Midwest city. There is undoubtedly an awakened public interest, there is growing hope among the most able principals, and there appears to be a growing enthusiasm in the teaching profession. It is too early to determine whether the schools are emerging from the slough of despair and are on their way to a status of respectability or not, but I believe they are. I left the city where I spent many happy years of activity, after a short visit, with distinct hope for the future. The educators of the country will rejoice with me in the prospect that this school system may again, in years to come, assume a position of leadership in the educational advance of the country. Research into the causes of the growth and decline of St. Louis schools and the publicity of the conclusions might afford to cities, in general, the means of avoiding the pitfalls that produced the educational decline. In spite of the fact that at least two surveys have been made of the city schools, we do not have sufficient data to draw final conclusions and will not have this data until a more fundamental study is made. Such a study should be undertaken.

BOOK REVIEWS

Public Opinion, by WALTER LIPPmann. *Patterns of Culture*, by RUTH BENEDICT. *The Birth and Death of the Sun*, by GEORGE GAMOW. *You and Music*, by CHRISTIAN DARNTON. New York: Penguin Books, Inc., 1946.

Here at last is what educators and students have been waiting for, inexpensive reprints of important, best-selling textbooks. It seems to have taken book publishers a long time to see the possibilities of this fertile and as yet hitherto untapped field. The publishers of Penguin Books are to be congratulated on their foresight and on the admirable choice of the above texts to launch their companion to Penguin Books, the Pelican Series.

The reappearance of Mr. Lippmann's book is especially timely. Much that he wrote, set in a framework of reference of the postwar years of the First World War, is more than relevant in the postwar years of the Second World War. With such instruments of mass impression as the radio, press, and motion picture at our disposal for the formation of public opinion, an understanding of its nature and effectiveness is vital if we are to prevent national as well as international misunderstandings.

To those who are convinced that culture is one of the most important facts about human life, there will be much of value to be gained from a reading or rereading of Ruth Benedict's book. It is culture, as Ruth Benedict points out, that makes many different models out of the same human materials. This fact is sharply brought into focus by her analysis and comparison of three different cultures: that of the Zuni of New Mexico, the Kwakintls of Vancouver Island, and the Dobus of Melanesia. Not content with this, Dr. Benedict in her final chapter comments on her findings in terms of our own culture.

The two other books in the series, *The Birth and Death of the Sun* and *You and Music*, show the broad field to be sampled by the publishers of Pelican books.

The first is as timely as the atom bomb itself and in terms that are simple, but scientifically accurate, the reader may probe into the many mysteries of the atomic theory and nuclear reactions. Much of this information may be gleaned as the author explains the problems of stellar evolution and the role of subatomic energy in cosmic phenomena.

In *You and Music* Mr. Darnton explains the fundamentals of how music is made as concisely and thoroughly as Mr. Gamow has explained stellar evolution. No extensive knowledge of music is necessary for understanding this book. However, whether you are a layman or a professional musician your listening pleasure will be increased after reading this thought-provoking book.

All of these books are attractively and serviceably bound and sell for twenty-five cents.

Collective Bargaining, by LEONARD J. SMITH. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1946, xiii + 468 pages.

With the passage of the National Labor Relations Act in 1935, the practice of collective bargaining became the law of the land. Since that time, the courts have upheld, as a guarantee to employees, the right to organize for the purpose of negotiating collectively with their employers. Business, with few exceptions, has come to recognize that this practice is here to stay and has been adjusting its organizational and operational structure to allow for it. The basic pattern of collective bargaining is thus set forth by law and both employers and employees must act accordingly. While appearing to be simple on the surface, collective bargaining is actually a complicated and difficult process which must be thoroughly understood to ensure the proper end results.

Collective Bargaining, by Leonard J. Smith, provides a source of information of the entire subject of collective bargaining. The first four chapters of the book cover the areas of collective bargaining, the attitudes usually present, the objectives of labor agreements, and the selection of the negotiators. The second section of the volume covers the actual bargaining sessions, including the physical set-up, the preparations and the procedures followed, and the labor agreement and its variations. This is followed by chapters that deal with the labor agreement in terms of the individual provisions. A final section includes much reference material, bibliographies, and sample labor agreements. In short, the volume is a most practical and complete manual on collective bargaining. Mr. Smith presents his material in a factual manner and, hence, the book is singularly free of bias and partial viewpoints.

Economic Reconstruction, edited by SEYMOUR E. HARRIS. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1946, xii + 424 pages.

In 1944, the Harvard Graduate School of Public Administration offered a series of lectures on economic reconstruction. Somewhat over twenty authorities in their respective fields presented papers and these have now been edited and printed. The volume, *Economic Reconstruction*, provides a solid basis for thinking on the vast and manifold problems that confront this country. After five brief chapters which give the general aspects and framework for further discussion, attention is turned to the special problems of reconversion, the question of controls, monetary and fiscal problems, international economic relations, and social security. Although the various sections are technically sound and scholarly done, laymen will find the material easy to comprehend and, of course, challenging and cogent. *Economic Reconstruction* stresses the fact that our postwar economic problems are going to be of unprecedented difficulty and that the energies and time of our best brains will be required to work out functional solutions.

Psychology of Teaching, by ASAHEL D. WOODRUFF. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1946, 180 pages.

A treatment of fundamental psychological concepts designed especially for the prospective teacher. Well-established facts are presented to the college student for his information and use in applying them to practical situations. The material is presented in concentrated form in order that the instructor may have pertinent facts regarding good teaching readily available. Long discussions on various schools of thought and different theories, which might be confusing to the beginning teacher, are omitted as are chapters dealing with subjects ordinarily handled in other courses. Organization of content is such that concepts are arranged according to the needs and problems of the teacher.

The above approach indicates clearly to the student the correlation between the subject matter of a course in educational psychology and the problems to be encountered in the average classroom. Psychological terms are discussed and explained using terminology easily understood by a college student. Due to the concentrated nature of the presentation, the material must be studied carefully and supplemented by laboratory work or assignment of practical problems to illustrate the facts. Thus

the opportunity for application of the concepts described would be a factor in the effective utilization of this volume as a text for the college level.

Educational Psychology, by H. CARL WITHERINGTON. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1946, 464 pages.

A text designed for use in a beginning course in educational psychology. The material is presented in clear, concise form, very readable to one being introduced to the processes involved in education. Though its subject matter is treated as an introduction to the study, a professional approach is maintained throughout the book that should inspire and stimulate the beginner to continue with further research in the field. Selection and presentation of content is such that the text is adapted for use by more advanced students who already have a general background in psychology.

Most of the topics for discussion are not treated separately but emphasis is placed rather on learning in general. Chapter VIII on "Principles of Learning" gives an especially good review of current schools of thought on the subject and the author's interpretation of them. Chapters on "Mental Hygiene" and "Personality" seem particularly appropriate in a volume of this sort. The selected references after each chapter are most inclusive and should be used in conjunction with the textbook material.

Guiding Youth in the Secondary School, by LESLIE L. CHISHOLM. New York: American Book Company, 1945, 433 pages.

Counselors, teachers, administrators, and others interested in the development and functions of an effective guidance program will find much of value in this book. It gives a general picture of various aspects of the guidance activities with a breakdown into specific areas dealing with the problems, principles, techniques, and procedures which should be considered in rendering maximum guidance service to high-school students.

Constant reference is made to the necessity for analyzing the particular needs of the student body with special emphasis upon assisting the individual student to work out a flexible education plan in harmony with his goals, abilities, interests, and opportunities. A portion of the book is devoted to counseling, orientation, homeroom guidance, teacher parti-

pation, and the steps essential for setting up an adequate guidance program. The material is so organized and presented that it lends itself for use as a textbook or as a first book on guidance, although by no means should it be the only book. Each chapter contains a suitable list of topics for discussion and a bibliography.

Student's Guide to Efficient Study, by LUILLA COLE and JESSIE MARY FERGUSON. New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1946.

This manual seems to meet in every respect a long-felt need for information pertaining to improvement of study habits that is based on objective scientific research. Using results of a careful analysis of study habits, the authors present clear-cut and well-defined suggestions for efficient study. Of interest to every student, both young and old, and should be required reading for every college freshman for orientation purposes.

Report on Training in the Armed Forces, by WILLIAM A. HANNIG, WILLIAM H. BRISTOW, MAURICE U. AMES, OTTO KLITGORD, and HERBERT A. LANDRY. New York: Board of Education of the City of New York, 1945, 110 pages.

This report should have great significance for education in the City of New York, and, if it is made available outside of New York, to education throughout the country. A capable committee of New York City educators, all of them members of the city's educational system, set out to study wartime training programs in the armed forces with particular reference to possible applications in civilian education. The committee did an excellent job. Until more exhaustive and conclusive studies of training in the armed forces become available, this report will serve admirably the requirements of educators who wish to learn what lessons we can be taught from the wartime experience. One clear lesson is that wonderful accomplishments are possible when cost is no object.

My Country School Diary, by JULIA WEBER. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946, 270 pages.

The constructive atmosphere and the pleasant teacher-pupil relationships that permeate Miss Weber's classroom are reflected in every page of this delightful volume. What America needs is a host of creative

teachers comparable to the author. Such people are needed, to be sure, in America's rural schools, but equally so in the urban schools.

The author has given us in varied and interesting fashion the noble, disturbing, and satisfying experiences that are a part of the "growing pains" of one's first job as a teacher. This rural teacher was fortunate in having the sort of supervisory guidance that every beginning teacher is entitled to receive. As a result she became an expert student of children, a dynamic community leader, and a teacher who continued to grow in her own philosophy and teaching techniques.

To conclude her report of her first four years as a rural-school teacher, Miss Weber presents a telling picture of how she and her pupils learned the meaning of democracy and how to live it. Beginning and experienced teachers alike will receive genuine inspiration from reading this significant contribution.

Publicity Primer: an ABC of "Telling All" About the Public Library; 3d edition revised, With a New Section on School Library Publicity, by MARIE D. LOIZEAUX. New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1945, 103 pages.

This concise pamphlet presents (in a logical, well-thought-out program) the various publicity channels available to a library. The suggestions are adaptable to most library situations. The dictum that "publicity begins at home" by keeping everyone on the library staff, from the pages to the chief librarian, informed of the publicity program is one of the valuable tips. Everyone in the library may thus become a medium for creating good will for the library.

The new section on school library publicity, with its emphasis on reaching the teachers first, is of particular significance for readers of *THE JOURNAL*.

The pamphlet is pocket size, with attractive section headings in red, which give the reader easy access to the contents. A "publicity calendar" and a bibliography complete this useful manual.

Facing Your Social Situation, by JAMES F. WALSH. Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Company, 1946, 237 pages.

Father Walsh in *Facing Your Social Situation* gives the student and

layman an introduction to social psychology from a Christian viewpoint with an emphasis on the role of the supernatural in personality development.

Future behavior is largely dependent upon how we meet obstacles confronting us in our daily associations with others. Successful accomplishment of a difficult situation is an added step to the ladder of character. From each situation ideas are formed, sometimes unconsciously so, which will gradually form our attitudes toward life. The social situation exerts pressure upon man and in so doing helps shape his personality. The author is quick to point out that, while man is tremendously influenced by his social situation, he is not by any means its victim, because he has free will.

These daily interactions with others forming the social situations are approached through three considerations in the present volume: how social situations are created, how we react to them, and how we can control them effectively. Added to these Professor Walsh discusses the form that the social situation takes in the family, the school, the church, the workshop, and the state.

The author has made a distinct contribution to the field of social psychology not only in pointing out the importance of the social situation in personality growth, but also in reminding us of the role of religion in the development of a balanced personality.

Mathematician's Delight, by W. W. SAWYER. New York: Penguin Books, Inc., 1946, 215 pages.

Mathematician's Delight is a mathematics teacher's attempt to give his subject interest and new life by relating it to the reader's everyday experiences, and to prove that it need not be the difficult subject students think it is. The reader is led carefully and accurately through simple discussions of the discovery and applications of geometry (practical and demonstrative), arithmetic, and algebra including graphs (thinking in pictures), trigonometry, and calculus.

The content is in storybook rather than textbook form, although there is sufficient illustrative and problem material to put across the author's ideas. It is an excellent book for the layman or for the teacher of mathematics who is looking for new inspiration and teaching material. I should, however, like to see it expanded into two or three volumes and published in a better edition. Its brevity is its chief weakness.

